# STATE-SPACE-LIKE MODELS TO CALL COPY NUMBERS

#### Ellen Visccher & Christopher Yau

Nuffield Department of Women's and Reproductive Health, University of Oxford {ellen.visscher, christopher.yau}@{bdi, wrh}.ox.ac.uk

#### **1** INTRODUCTION

Somatic copy number alterations (CNAs) are genomic regions amplified or deleted during somatic cell replication, playing a critical role in cancer development by driving oncogene amplification (Zhang & Pellman, 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Rosswog et al., 2021). Accurate CNA profiling is essential for downstream analysis. Despite advances in 'omics and deep learning, CNA callers have seen limited innovation, due to sequence length limitations of transformers. To address this, we propose araCNA, a deep learning-based approach to improve CNA calling, leveraging state-space-like models that enable genome-scale modeling.

## 2 Methods

We first define the mathematical construction, similar to that first shown in (Van Loo et al., 2010). We define  $C_{T,i}$ ,  $C_{P,i}$ ,  $C_{M,i}$ ,  $C_{B,i}$  as the total, paternal, maternal and B-allele copy number at locus i in the tumour. We further define  $\rho$  as the purity of the tumour sample (the proportion of tumour vs non-tumour) and  $r_d$  as the expected number of sequencing reads per copy number, which are both unknown. Finally, we have  $R_i$ , the total number of reads at a locus and  $B_i$ , the B allele frequency (BAF), both measured data. The sequence data is therefore a collection  $\{R_i, B_i\}_{i=1}^L$  for L loci. The generating process from  $\{C_{M,i}, C_{P,i}, r_d, \rho\} \rightarrow \{R_i, B_i\}$  is well understood, Figure S1, Appendix A.1, what remains difficult is the inference process,  $\{R_i, B_i\} \rightarrow \{A_{M,i}, A_{m,i}, r_d, \rho\}$ . Here major and minor parental copy numbers,  $A_M = \max(C_M, C_P)$  and  $A_m = \min(C_M, C_P)$ , are introduced due to the non-identifiability of  $(C_M, C_P)$ .

The function of araCNA can be summarised as  $f_{\theta}(\{R_i, B_i\}) \rightarrow (\{p_{i,k}\}, \hat{\rho})$  where  $f_{\theta}$  is a statespace-like model (i.e Hyena, (Poli et al., 2023) or Mamba, (Gu & Dao, 2024)) parameterised by network weights  $\theta$ , Figure 1.  $\hat{\rho}$  is araCNA's global purity estimate. While  $p_{k,i}$  is the probability that araCNA assigns the locus as belonging to copy number profile  $K_k$ . The profile categories  $K_1, \ldots, K_J$  correspond to major/minor parental copy number combinations. From these, we can also estimate  $\hat{r}_d$ , Appendix A.1.

We trained our model using simulated datasets where the ground truth copy numbers and purity are known. The loss function consists of a supervised sequence loss for copy numbers and a global loss for purity and read depth predictions. The model was trained by iteratively increasing the complexity of the simulated data. For details see Appendix A.2. Figure 2 demonstrates the complexity of real data samples that araCNA learns to infer.

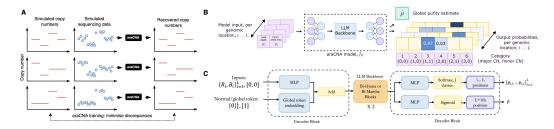


Figure 1: Overview of A) training of araCNA B) high-level model, C) araCNA architecture.

#### 3 **RESULTS**

We first compared results from our two araCNA variants (araCNA-mamba and araCNA-hyena) using simulated data, Figure 3A, simulation procedure in Appendix A.3.

Both models achieve high copy number classification accuracy for the task though araCNAmamba slightly outperforms araCNA-hyena. In this case, we know the ground truth so can directly measure accuracy.

We next compare results araCNA to several existing popular CNA calling tools for whole genome sequencing data by analysing a selection of 50 tumour samples chosen from the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA). Since there are no ground truth copy number profiles for these tumours, we compare methods to each other, using concordance Figure 3B, and use proxy measures such as reconstruction error to provide an unsupervised metric for performance, where better methods will be expected to have low reconstruction error Figure 3C. However, a

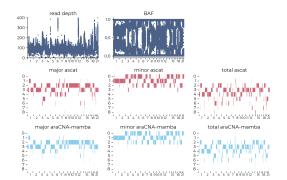


Figure 2: Representative TCGA ovarian cancer sample. Comparison of predicted profiles from ASCAT and araCNA-mamba

low reconstruction error accompanied by a large number of segments may suggest overfitting, while high copy number calls at high read depth regions will have a lower reconstruction error but are likely less plausible.

Using both araCNA variants for zero-shot inference of the copy number states gives comparable reconstruction performance to the existing CNA calling methods while using similar numbers of segments. ASCAT and Battenberg achieve slightly improved reconstruction error performance, however, assign as high as 100 copies to localised genomic regions, Figure 3C. Conversely, araCNA achieves this performance despite being limited to calling a total copy number of 8.

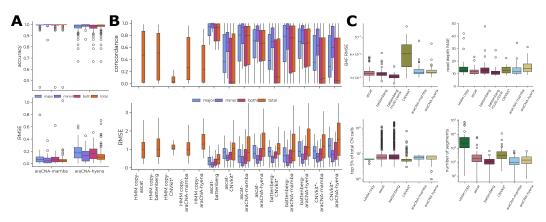


Figure 3: A) Accuracy and RMSE from 100 simulated genomic samples of length 650k, drawn from same distribution as training data. B) Concordance and RMSE between different callers on 50 TCGA cancer samples on WGS data C) Boxplots showing the B-allele-frequency reconstruction RMSE, read-depth mean absolute error (MAE), copy number distribution of top 5% of copy number calls and the number of different copy number segments identified across the 50 samples.

## 4 CONCLUSION

Here, we present a novel deep-learning approach, araCNA, trained only on simulated data that can accurately predict CNAs in real WGS cancer genomes. araCNA uses novel transformer alternatives (e.g Mamba) to handle genomic-scale sequence lengths ( $\sim 1M$ ) and learn long-range interactions. Results are extremely accurate on simulated data, and this zero-shot approach is on par with existing methods when applied to 50 WGS samples from the cancer genome atlas. Notably, our approach requires only a tumour sample and not a matched normal sample, has fewer markers of overfitting, and performs inference in only a few minutes.

## MEANINGFULNESS STATEMENT

What is more literal to "life" than DNA. Here we seek to uncover the true representation of regions of patient DNA that have been amplified or deleted due to cancerous aberrations, measured using whole genome sequencing (WGS). Unlike traditional methods, we use novel deep-learning architectures that learn to represent (an analogue of) the posterior distribution of copy number profiles from WGS data. We use simulated data to circumvent the unknown ground-truth problem that affects much of biology. Our approach demonstrates a proof-of-concept for biological applications where the generating process is understood but inference is challenging.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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#### A APPENDIX

#### A.1 GENERATING PROCESS

For a pure tumour sample, we have the total copy number as:

$$C_{T,i} = C_{P,i} + C_{M,i}$$

Considering sample impurity, we define the sample copy number  $C_T^s$  as:

$$C_{T,i}^s = \rho C_{T,i} + 2(1-\rho)$$

where we assume the contaminating normal cells have copy number 2 at all loci. While normal cells may possess some copy number variants, the size of these regions are typically negligible compared to the cancer-associated alterations we aim to detect and so we ignore these for simplicity.

The B allele copy number is defined as:

$$C_{B,i} = s_{p,i}C_{P,i} + s_{m,i}C_{M,i}$$

where  $(s_{p,i}, s_{m,i}) \in \{(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1)\}$  denotes whether the paternal and maternal chromosomes respectively have the specified SNP B allele at locus *i*.

Adding sample impurity we have:

$$C_{B,i}^{s} = s_{p,i}((1-\rho) + \rho C_{P,i}) + s_{m,i}((1-\rho) + \rho C_{M,i})$$

The total number of reads at a locus  $R_i$  are then:

$$R_i = r_d C^s_{T,i}$$

While the B allele frequency (BAF)  $B_i$  at locus *i* is given by:

$$B_i = \frac{C_{B,i}^s}{C_{T,i}^s}$$

To determine the copy number profiles, we must infer,  $\{\hat{C}_{M,i}, \hat{C}_{m,i}\}$ . From these we can also estimate  $\hat{r}_d = \mu_{\text{robust}}(R)/(\mathbb{E}[\hat{C}^s])$ , where  $\mu_{\text{robust}}(R)$  is the robust or trimmed mean of the read depth vector and  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{C}^s]$  is the expected value of the overall sample copy number (ploidy).

Figure S1 illustrates the link between the mathematical construction and measured data from a tissue sample.

#### A.2 LOSS AND TRAINING PROCEDURE

The loss used to train araCNA is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ss} = -\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \sum_{j=1}^{J} I\{c_i = K_j\} \log(p_{k,i}) + \lambda_r |r_d - \hat{r}_d| + \lambda_\rho |\rho - \hat{\rho}|$$

where L is the sequence length,  $c_i \in K_1 \dots K_J$  is the known target profile of a genomic locus.

The first term is supervised sequence loss is the cross entropy, while the last two terms are supervised global parameter losses. We found  $\lambda_r = \lambda_\rho = 1$  to work well.

To train araCNA we adopted an iterative warmup procedure, gradually increasing the complexity of the problem. We found this was necessary for the model to learn, and a similar approach was taken in (Nguyen et al., 2023) with gradually increasing the sequence length.

The training procedure was:

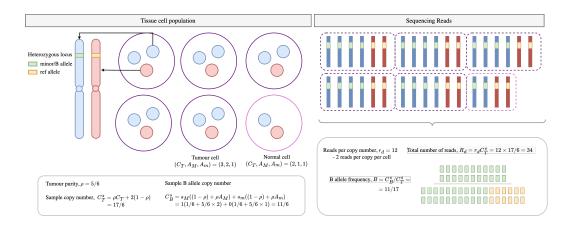


Figure S1: Mathematical construction of copy number calling. Illustration of how purity, copy number, read depth per-copy number and heterozygous loci (major/minor haplotypes denoted  $s_M$ ,  $s_m$ ) result in measured read depth and B allele frequency.

- 1. Begin the synthetic data generating procedure with  $\rho = 1$ , and without sampling the noise parameters. Use only up to a maximum total copy number of 2, that is profiles,  $(A_M, A_m) \in \{(0,0), (1,0), (1,1), (2,0)\}$ . Sample  $r_d$ , and start with sequence length 10000. Train until convergence.
- 2. Using the previously trained model weights as initialisation, add in purity and noise parameter sampling. Train until convergence.
- 3. Using the previously trained model weights as initialisation, slowly increase the maximum total copy number to 8. Train until convergence.
- 4. Using the previously trained model weights as initialisation, slowly increase the maximum sequence length to 650,000. Train until convergence.

#### A.3 SYNTHETIC DATA SIMULATION

We generated synthetic copy number profiles using the following procedures:

1) Sampling the number of segments. We sample the approximate number of copy number segments,  $\hat{N}_s$  using a mixture approach; first, we sample a uniform variable, u such that under a user-defined swap probability,  $q_s$ , the number of segments is sampled uniformly between 1 and N. When  $u > q_s$ , a Poisson distribution is used to skew sampling towards smaller total segments. This is to oversample harder cases with fewer segments where it is harder to estimate global parameters like read depth per copy number and purity.

2) Sampling the segment breakpoints. This is done by randomly sampling  $b_1, \ldots, b_{\hat{N}_s}$  breakpoints from  $1 \ldots L$ , the unique set of these breakpoints defines the segments, and  $N_s = |b_1, \ldots, b_{\hat{N}_s}|$ . We only keep the segments that have a minimum segment length of  $L_{\min}$ .

3) Sampling the segment profiles. We sample  $A_M, A_m$  of each segment from the possible copy number profiles. We inject logic here to preferentially sample profiles closer in copy number to 1-1 when there are fewer segments. This is due to the identifiability issue. When there are more segments, profiles are sampled more uniformly but still with a preference for lower copy numbers, to inject an implicit bias towards lower ploidy solutions when the model is unsure.

From a sampled profile, we simulate the sequencing read depth and B allele frequency data. Each of the L loci is considered a commonly varying single nucleotide polymorphism, SNP. For both parental alleles,  $A_M, A_m$ , we sample each SNP as binomial with a probability of 0.5, we also sample the purity,  $\rho$ , uniformly from a range between 0.5 and 1. This gives the sample minor allele copy number,  $C_{B,i}^s$  and the sample total copy number,  $C_{T,i}^s$ . The read depth per copy number,  $r_d$  is sampled uniformly between 5 and 70, and together with  $C_{T,i}^s$  the overall read depth,  $R_i$  is sampled

from this mean with additional noise. The BAF,  $B_i$  is sampled using total reads sampled based on  $R_i$  and the subset of B-allele reads using a binomial probability of  $C_{B,i}^s/C_{T,i}^s$ , with added noise.

In real data, there exist regions of prolonged homozygosity that can be attributed to identity-bydescent (IBD) regions (i.e identical regions inherited from both parents due to a common ancestor). To emulate this, we also randomly inject regions of prolonged homozygosity into the model. In these IBD regions, the BAF cannot be used to infer copy-number, and the model must use context from before/after the homozygous region for correct prediction.

From this sampling procedure, we therefore have a set of targets  $(\{A_{M,i}, A_{m,i}\}, \rho, r_d)$  that generate inputs  $\{R_i, B_i\}$ , which together are used in the training of araCNA. Hence, araCNA can be interpreted as performing inference on the above statistical approach, when  $(\{A_{M,i}, A_{m,i}\}, \rho, r_d)$  are treated as unknowns.